credit, they force us to root our knowledge and policy prescriptions in scientifically supportable evidence. As a result, we are less likely to make major policy errors, and the policies we do make are more likely to be effective.

References.....

- Hay, J. W., and Mandes, G.: Home health care costfunction analysis. Health Care Finc Rev 5: 111-116 (1984).
- Kurowski, B. T., Schlenker, R. E., and Tricarico, G.: Applied research in home health services, volume II. DHHS report No. OPEL 79-2. Washington, DC, 1979.
- Day, S. R.: Geriatric home care: For whom? How long? How much? What then? HCFA grant No. 18-P-97362/ 5-01. Baltimore, MD, 1980.
- Benjamin, A. E.: Determinants of state variations in home health utilization and expenditures under Medicare. Med

- Care 24: 535 (1986).
- Manton, K. G., and Hausner, T.: A multidimensional approach to case mix for home health services. Health Care Finc Rev 8: 37-54, summer 1987.
- Foley, W.: Developing a patient classification system for home health care. Pride Inst J 6: 22-24 (1987).
- Vladeck, B. C.: Unloving care. Basic Books, New York, NY. 1980.
- Wisconsin Department of Health and Human Services: Home health agency utilization: Wisconsin, 1983-1984.
 Center for Health Statistics, Madison, 1985.
- Kass, D. I.: Economies of scale and scope in the provision of home health services. J. Health Econ 6: 129-146, June 1987.
- Nyman, J. A., Levey, S., and Rohrer, J. E.: RUGs and equity of access to nursing home care. Med Care 5: 361-372, May 1987.
- Nyman, J. A.: The marginal cost of nursing home care: New York, 1983. J. Health Econ 7: 393-412, December 1988.

Runners' Health Habits, 1985– "The Alameda 7" Revisited

C. A. MACERA, PhD R. R. PATE, PhD D. R. DAVIS, BA

Dr. Macera is an Associate Professor and Chairman, and Ms. Davis is a research assistant, Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of South Carolina School of Public Health; Dr. Pate is a Professor in the Department of Physical Education at the University of South Carolina College of Health.

Tearsheet requests to Dr. Macera, School of Public Health, University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC 29208.

Seven health habits were shown to be associated with longevity in a longitudinal study initiated in Alameda County, CA, in 1965. These habits (drinking moderately, exercising regularly, main-

taining desirable weight for height, eating breakfast, not eating snacks, sleeping 7 or 8 hours per day, and never having smoked) were recently examined in a sample of the U.S. population. Subgroups with low income and little education were found to have low frequency of these health habits. In this report, findings on the frequency of these habits in 966 habitual runners in South Carolina are presented separately for men and women and according to age, education, income, and weekly mileage.

Subgroups of the runners are surprisingly similar to subgroups of the national sample for several health habits. In addition, among the runners, low-income groups and those with little education have a lower frequency of good health habits relative to the other groups, although these differences are not statistically significant. Overall, about half of the runners practice five or more good health habits. These results indicate that even among healthy runners there is need for improvement in the adoption of health habits thought to be associated with reduced morbidity and mortality.

In A 9-YEAR FOLLOWUP to a longitudinal study initiated in 1965 in Alameda County, CA, seven health habits were identified that were associated with physical health status and low mortality (1,2). These habits were drinking moderately or not at all, exercising regularly, maintaining desirable weight for height, eating breakfast, not eating

snacks, sleeping 7 or 8 hours per day, and never having smoked cigarettes. Researchers in several studies have attempted to describe the frequency of these habits in other populations and to relate these habits to health status. In a recent report on the frequency of the health habits in a sample of United States adults, important differences were

'... these seven habits were assessed in a statewide survey of South Carolina habitual distance runners. These runners are of particular interest because regular exercisers (especially runners) are thought to be concerned with their health status and to have more health knowledge than the general population.'

found in groups with little education and in lowincome groups (3). These socially and economically disadvantaged groups had fewer positive lifestyle behaviors compared with the rest of the sample.

To determine if physically active adults also follow a healthy lifestyle, these seven habits were assessed in a statewide survey of South Carolina habitual distance runners. These runners are of particular interest because regular exercisers (especially runners) are thought to be concerned with their health status and to have more health knowledge than the general population. The extent to which these runners follow "good" health practices should reflect the potential for individuals to adopt positive health behaviors in the presence of adequate knowledge and concern.

Methods

Study participants. A mailing list of runners who wished to be notified of road races in the State was provided by the Physical Fitness Office of the South Carolina Department of Health and Environmental Control. A consent form and an 18-page questionnaire were mailed to each person on this list, and information on current and past running practices, other physical activities, history of injuries and illnesses, lifestyle behavior factors such as diet and alcohol use, and demographic characteristics was elicited for this report. Questions were designed to allow comparisons with national surveys, so that most of the "Alameda 7" measures could be obtained directly from the data responses. A composite health habit index, with a range of 0-7, was obtained by summing the positive responses to the seven health habits.

Eating breakfast. Subjects were asked whether they usually, sometimes, or never ate breakfast. Those

who scored positive on this health habit reported "usually" eating breakfast.

Snacks. Subjects were asked how often they ate snacks in addition to regular meals. Those who scored positive on this health habit were those who reported rarely or never eating snacks. Although there is some question as to whether snacking behavior and eating breakfast are important indicators of mortality and morbidity (4-6), these measures were included for comparison with other work (3).

Hours of sleep. The hours a respondent reported sleeping each day were categorized with 7 or 8 hours as the positive category for the health habit index, and less than 7 hours or more than 8 hours as less desirable alternatives.

Alcohol consumption. Questions on alcohol use during the past month measured total alcohol consumption (including beer, wine, and liquor), as well as occasions of drinking five or more drinks at one sitting. The data are presented for the average number of alcoholic drinks (beer, wine, or liquor) consumed on a day when drinking occurred. For the health habit index, fewer than five drinks (beer, wine, or liquor) at a sitting was considered positive.

Smoking. Current and past cigarette smoking behavior was assessed. Although Schoenborn (3) used current smoking for the health index, the Alameda study (1) identified never having smoked as positive for the summary index. For the runners, those who had never smoked were considered positive for the health habit index.

Ideal body weight. Respondents reported weight and height without shoes. A measure of desirable body weight for height was obtained using the 1960 Metropolitan Life Insurance Company tables (7). The 1983 Metropolitan tables show about a 10-pound increase in desirable weight from the 1960 tables, but the 1960 tables were used in this study for comparison with other work. Male and female runners were categorized into those at more than 10 percent below ideal weight, within 10 percent of ideal weight. Those who were within 10 percent of their ideal weight were considered positive for the health habit index.

Regular exercise. The measurement of regular exercise was somewhat different from other studies,

Table 1. Percent distribution for breakfast eating habits of runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		Men-ea	nt breakfast			Women	eat breakfast	
Characteristic	Number	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely or never	Number	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely or never
Total	781	69	12	20	163	64	13	23
18-29 years	75	76	15	9	31	58	19	23
30-44 years	493	63	14	24	113	63	12	25
45–64 years Education	213	79	7	14	19	79	5	16
12 years or less	72	61	17	22	18	61	22	17
College graduate	424	67	11	21	91	63	10	27
Graduate school	283	72	11	17	54	67	15	19
\$15,000 or less	29	69	7	24	14	71	14	14
\$15,001 to \$25,000	87	75	15	10	35	63	11	26
\$25,001 to \$50,000	433	65	12	23	77	62	14	23
More than \$50,000	232	73	10	16	37	65	11	24
10 or less	176	66	11	23	40	70	18	13
11 to 20	234	70	12	18	57	58	14	28
21 to 30	205	67	12	21	38	63	11	26
More than 30	166	71	13	16	28	68	7	25

NOTE: Excludes persons with unknown breakfast habits.

since all participants were runners. Running activity was measured in two ways: days per week of running and miles run per week. For display in the tables, weekly mileage categories were 10 miles per week or less, 11 to 20 miles, 21 to 30 miles and more than 30 miles. For the health habit index, a positive score was given to those who ran 5 or more days a week for an average of at least 30 minutes.

Good health habits. In addition to the data on individual health habits, a summary score was created, in which 1 point was allowed for each of the following good habits: usually eating breakfast, rarely or never snacking, drinking moderately (fewer than five drinks at a sitting), never having smoked, being within 10 percent of ideal body weight for height, and running (exercising) five or more times a week.

Statistical analysis. All comparisons of categorical data were evaluated using a chi-square test on each set without adjustments for age or other socio-economic characteristics. Men and women were analyzed separately.

Results

Of 1,576 questionnaires mailed, 3 were returned for improper addresses. Of 1,573 potential respon-

dents, 966 usable questionnaires were returned (61 percent response rate). A telephone survey of 100 randomly selected nonrespondents indicated that only 53 percent were runners and eligible to participate in the study. Assuming that the remaining 507 nonrespondents were also eligible at the same rate, the estimated response rate among the runners would be 75 percent. The demographic characteristics for the 53 eligible nonparticipants indicated that they were slightly younger than the respondents (36.3 years compared to 39.4 years). Both groups had the same average weekly mileage (22 miles), and the percent with at least a college education was also the same (70 percent). Men constituted a slightly greater percentage of the nonparticipant group (87 percent compared to 83 percent). None of these differences is statistically significant.

Of the 966 usable questionnaires, 19 were excluded because the respondent was less than 18 or over 64 years of age. Responses of the remaining 947 runners (784 men and 163 women) were used in this analysis. Their mean age was 39.4 years (40.1 for men and 36.0 for women). They were a highly educated group, with 90.4 percent having more than a high school education. Their income was also high, with 28.6 percent reporting an annual family income in excess of \$50,000. Race could not be used as a category, since 99 percent of the respondents were white. The mean miles run per

Table 2. Percent distribution for snacking habits of runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		Men—e	at snacks			Women-	Women—eat snacks					
Characteristic	Number	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely or never	Number	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely or never				
Total	781	32	32	36	161	36	38	26				
18–29 years	75	49	35	16	31	35	39	26				
30-44 years	494	31	34	35	112	38	37	26				
45–64 years Education	212	30	24	46	18	28	44	28				
12 years or less	72	43	32	25	18	39	39	22				
College graduate	425	30	34	36	89	33	42	26				
Graduate school	282	33	28	39	54	41	31	28				
\$15,000 or less	29	31	41	28	14	14	50	36				
\$15,001 to \$25,000	87	48	24	28	35	40	34	26				
\$25,001 to \$50,000	434	32	31	37	76	45	34	21				
More than \$50,000	231	27	33	39	36	22	44	33				
10 or less	177	34	31	34	40	45	30	25				
11 to 20	234	31	31	38	56	29	45	27				
21 to 30	204	32	35	33	37	32	38	30				
More than 30	166	32	28	40	28	43	36	21				

NOTE: Excludes persons with unknown snacking habits.

Table 3. Percent distribution for hours of sleep of runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		Men-hours	s of sleep		Women—hours of sleep					
Characteristic	Number	6 or less	7–8	9 or more	Number	6 or less	7–8	9 or more		
Total	784	17	81	3	163	14	79	7		
Age										
18–29 years	75	16	77	7	31	16	77	6		
30-44 years	495	15	83	1	113	13	78	9		
45–64 years Education	214	20	76	4	19	11	89	0		
12 years or less	73	22	77	1	18	11	78	11		
College graduate	426	16	82	2	91	16	78	5		
Graduate school	283	16	80	4	54	9	81	9		
\$15,000 or less	,29	21	80	0	14	21	64	14		
\$15,001 to \$25,000	87	17	79	5	35	20	71	9		
\$25,001 to \$50,000	434	18	80	2	77	13	81	6		
More than \$50,000	234	14	83	3	37	5	89	5		
10 or less	177	14	85	1	40	10	85	5		
11 to 20	234	18	80	1	57	14	75	11		
21 to 20	206	17	80	3	38	18	79	3		
More than 30	167	16	78	6	28	11	79	11		

week was 23.5 for men and 21.9 for women. The mean number of days of running per week was 4.4 for men and 4.6 for women.

Major findings of the 1985 survey of habitual runners are summarized for each of the seven health habits. Data are presented in tabular form by age group, education, income, and miles per week categories. All references to the national data are from the Schoenborn report (3).

Eating breakfast. Findings on breakfast habits are shown in table 1. Overall, 69 percent of male runners and 64 percent of female runners reported usually eating breakfast, compared with 54 percent

Table 4. Percent distribution for average number of alcoholic drinks (beer, wine, or liquor) consumed per day when respondents drank in last month by runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		Men-drink	s per day wh	en drinking			Women—drinks per day when drinking					
Characteristic	Number	Did not drink	1–2 drinks	3–4 drinks	5 or more	Number	Did not drink	1–2 drinks	3–4 drinks	5 or more		
Total	778	19	52	23	6	163	20	61	17	2		
18-29 years	75	21	38	31	11	31	19	58	16	6		
30-44 years	490	16	52	26	6	113	20	61	18	1		
45–64 years Education	213	24	56	15	5	19	21	68	11	0		
12 years or less	72	36	38	14	13	18	56	39	6	0		
College graduate	423	16	50	27	7	91	20	60	19	2		
Graduate school	281	18	58	21	4	54	9	72	17	2		
\$15,000 or less	29	24	48	24	3	14	36	50	14	0		
\$15,001 to \$25,000	86	30	36	22	12	35	23	51	23	3		
\$25,001 to \$50,000	433	19	50	24	6	77	19	65	13	3		
More than \$50,000	230	13	61	21	5	37	14	68	19	0		
10 or less	175	19	57	19	5	40	28	58	13	3		
11 to 20	234	17	53	28	3	57	16	68	16	0		
21 to 30	205	17	52	24	8	38	16	61	21	3		
More than 30	164	24	45	21	10	28	25	54	18	4		

NOTE: Excludes persons with unknown alcohol drinking habits.

of men and 56 percent of women in the national sample. About 20 percent of the runners rarely or never ate breakfast, compared to 25 percent of the men and women in the national sample. For the male runners, those in the middle age group (30-44 years) were more likely to skip breakfast than either the younger or older runners. In this respect, the male runners were similar to the men in the national sample. Breakfast eating habits for the runners did not vary by education, income, or mileage category.

Snacking. Findings on snacking habits are shown in table 2. Overall, 32 percent of male runners and 36 percent of female runners reported usually snacking compared with 41 percent for men and 38 percent for women in this country. In addition, 36 percent of male runners and 26 percent of female runners reported rarely, or never snacking, compared with 29 percent for men and 28 percent for women nationally. The female runners were very similar to the women in the national sample, while the male runners reported less snacking than the men in the larger sample.

For male runners, snacking habits were strongly associated with age, in that younger men were more likely to snack than older men (49 percent to 30 percent). This finding is similar to the national sample. Among runners, there is also an association with income in that lower income male runners were less likely to rarely or never snack than high

income male runners (28 percent to 39 percent). Neither the men nor the women in the national sample were found to differ in snacking habits among income categories.

There were no differences in snacking habits among the runners by education or weekly mileage.

Hours of sleep. Findings on sleeping habits are shown in table 3. Overall, 81 percent of male runners and 79 percent of female runners reported 7-8 hours of sleep per day while 66 percent of men and women in the national sample reported 7-8 hours of sleep. Since age is associated with sleeping patterns in that older persons sleep less, the difference between the runners and the national sample could be due to the different age distributions.

For the runners, hours of sleep varied statistically by age and running habits. Those who ran more than 30 miles per week were more likely to sleep more than 8 hours than those who ran less. Unlike the national sample, there were no associations among the runners between education or income and hours of sleep.

Alcohol consumption. The average number of alcoholic drinks (beer, wine, or liquor) consumed in the past month is shown in table 4. Overall, about 20 percent of the runners reported no alcohol consumption in the past month. In the national sample, 39 percent of the men and 60

Table 5. Percent distribution for smoking status of runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		Men—smo	king status		Women—smoking status					
Characteristic	Number	Never	Former	Current	Number	Never	Former	Current		
Total	781	55	42	3	162	60	36	4		
18-29 years	75	83	15	3	31	77	23	0		
30-44 years	495	55	42	3	112	55	40	4		
45–64 years	211	44	53	3	19	58	37	5		
12 years or less	73	42	51	7	18	44	56	0		
College graduate	424	52	46	3	91	56	37	7		
Graduate school	282	62	35	2	53	72	28	2		
\$15,000 or less	29	66	34	0	14	50	43	7		
\$15,001 to \$25,000	87	61	36	3	35	69	29	3		
\$25,001 to \$50,000	432	53	44	3	76	59	40	1		
More than \$50,000	233	55	42	3	37	57	35	8		
10 or less	175	58	37	5	40	65	30	5		
11 to 20	234	56	42	3	56	64	30	5		
21 to 30	205	53	45	2	38	45	53	3		
More than 30	167	52	46	2	28	64	36	0		

NOTE: Excludes persons with unknown smoking status.

Table 6. Percent distribution by desirable body weight of runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		Men-desirab	le body weight			Women—desira	ble body weight	
Characteristic	Number	Below 1	Within ²	Above 3	Number	Below ¹	Within ²	Above 5
Total	784	6	63	31	163	16	69	15
18-29 years	75	15	61	24	31	26	58	16
30-44 years	495	6	63	31	113	12	74	14
45–64 years Education	214	3	63	34	19	21	60	20
12 years or less	73	8	61	30	18	6	67	28
College graduate	426	5	63	33	91	14	70	15
Graduate school	283	6	63	31	54	22	69	9
\$15,000 or less	29	14	59	28	14	21	71	7
\$15,001 to \$25,000	87	10	59	31	35	3	74	23
\$25,001 to \$50,000	434	5	62	32	77	18	69	13
More than \$50,000	234	4	65	30	37	22	65	14
10 or less	177	5	49	47	40	18	73	11
11 to 20	234	5	58	37	57	11	67	23
21 to 30	206	4	67	28	38	13	71	16
More than 30	167	10	78	12	28	29	68	4

^{1 10} percent or more below ideal weight.

³ More than 10 percent above ideal weight.

percent of the women reported no alcohol consumption in the previous 2 weeks. However, it is possible that the difference in the reference time periods could account for the difference in the prevalence of drinking habits between the two groups.

Significant associations were found for all characteristics (age, education, income, weekly mileage)

for male runners, but only for education for the female runners. As in the national sample, younger male runners, those with low income, and those with 12 or fewer years of education were more likely to drink five or more drinks on days when they drank than were older men, high-income men, and well-educated men. Also similar to the national sample, women with 12 or fewer years of education

² No more than 10 percent above or below ideal weight.

Table 7. Percent distribution for days of exercise (running) of runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		Men—days of exe	ercise per wee	9k	١	Vomen—days of e	xercise per w	eek
Characteristic	Number	2 or less	3–4	5 or more	Number	2 or less	3–4	5 or more
Total	784	11	43	47	163	12	33	55
18-29 years	75	8	40	52	31	13	42	45
30-44 years	495	11	42	47	113	12	33	56
45–64 years	214	10	46	43	19	11	21	68
12 years or less	73	7	38	55	18	6	11	83
College graduate	426	12	44	44	91	18	34	48
Graduate school	283	10	42	47	54	4	39	57
\$15,000 or less	29	7	38	55	14	21	21	57
\$15,.001 to \$25,000	87	14	37	49	35	11	31	57
\$25,001 to \$50,000	434	11	42	47	77	12	35	53
More than \$50,000	234	9	48	44	37	8	35	57
10 or less	177	43	52	5	40	48	45	8
11 to 20	234	2	78	6	57	0	54	46
21 to 30	206	0	27	73	38	Ō	11	89
More than 30	167	1	4	95	28	Ö	4	96

were more likely not to drink in the past month than were those with more than 12 years of education. Alcohol consumption varied with mileage level, with men who ran more than 30 miles per week more likely to have five or more drinks on days when drinking occurred than low mileage male runners.

Smoking. Findings on current and past cigarette smoking habits are shown in table 5. Although 45 percent of the male runners and 40 percent of the female runners had ever smoked, only 3 percent of the men and 4 percent of the women were current smokers. In the general population sample, 33 percent of men and 28 percent of women reported current cigarette smoking, and 64 percent of men and 46 percent of women had ever smoked.

Level of education is the only characteristic that is statistically associated with smoking habits for both male and female runners. A higher percentage of "never" smokers were found in the higher levels of education along with a smaller percentage of current smokers. This trend is similar to the national sample.

For male and female runners, as the mileage category increases, the percentage of current smokers decreases and the percentage of former smokers increases, indicating that high mileage runners quit smoking at a higher rate than low mileage runners after adjusting for baseline smoking status. However, these differences are small (86 percent quit rate in the lowest mileage category and 96 percent

quit rate in the highest mileage category), and they are not statistically significant.

Body weight. Findings on maintenance of weight within 10 percent of ideal body weight are shown in table 6. Overall, 63 percent of the male runners and 69 percent of the female runners are within 10 percent of ideal body weight, compared to the national sample in which 45 percent of the men and women are within 10 percent of ideal body weight.

As in the national sample, more female runners than male runners are below 10 percent of ideal weight (16 percent for women and 6 percent for men), and more male runners than female runners are more than 10 percent of ideal weight (31 percent for men and 15 percent for women).

For male runners, age and weekly mileage are statistically associated with maintenance of weight. The more miles run per week, the more likely men are to be within the ideal weight category (49 percent for low mileage and 78 percent for high mileage). Younger men are more likely than older men to be at 10 percent or more under ideal weight (15 percent for younger and 3 percent for older).

Days per week of running. Findings on running habits by days per week of running are shown in table 7. Number of days per week of running is associated with mileage for both male and female runners, as is to be expected. However, it is not statistically associated with any other characteristic

Table 8. Percent distribution for number of miles run per week of runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		Ме	n—miles per v	veek		Women—miles per week					
Characteristic	Number	10 or less	11–20	21–30	More than 30	Number	10 or less	11–20	21–30	More than 30	
Total	784	23	30	26	21	163	25	35	23	17	
18-29 years	75	16	28	31	25	31	32	39	10	19	
30-44 years	495	23	28	28	21	113	22	35	25	18	
45–64 years Education	214	24	35	20	22	19	26	26	37	11	
12 years or less	73	15	27	18	40	18	11	27	56	6	
College graduate	426	22	31	27	20	91	29	36	19	16	
Graduate school	283	25	28	28	18	54	22	35	20	22	
\$15,000 or less	29	21	31	14	34	14	29	29	14	29	
\$15,001 to \$25,000	87	29	23	22	26	35	29	31	31	9	
\$25,001 to \$50,000	434	22	30	28	20	77	23	39	22	16	
More than \$50,000	234	22	31	26	21	37	22	32	22	24	

Table 9. Percent distribution for total number of good health habits of runners 18-64 years of age, by gender and selected characteristics, Carolina Runners Study, 1985

		М	en—good hab	vits			Wo	men—good he	abits	
Characteristic	Number	0–3	4	5	6–7	Number	0–3	4	5	6–7
Total	784	22	29	30	20	163	19	27	29	25
18-29 years	75	17	31	39	13	31	26	29	29	16
30-44 years	495	23	30	27	19	113	19	31	33	18
45–64 years Education	214	20	25	31	24	19	11	26	26	37
12 years or less	73	26	33	30	12	18	6	33	28	33
College graduate	426	23	29	30	19	91	22	32	35	11
Graduate school	283	19	27	29	24	54	19	26	26	30
\$15,000 or less	29	17	28	41.	14	14	21	29	36	14
\$15,001 to \$25,000	87	22	25	34	18	35	17	20	46	17
\$25,001 to \$50,000	434	22	29	30	19	77	22	34	26	18
More than \$50,000	234	21	29	29	24	37	14	32	27	27
10 or less	177	34	27	27	11	40	28	30	28	15
11 to 20	234	25	33	29	13	57	23	33	28	16
21 to 30	206	17	26	32	25	38	11	32	29	29
More than 30	167	10	26	31	33	28	11	21	46	21

in male runners. It is associated with education in female runners; higher levels of education were associated with fewer days of running.

This measure is difficult to compare with the national sample categories of sedentary, moderately active, and very active, since no one in the runners groups could reasonably be considered sedentary.

Miles per week. Findings on weekly running mileage are shown in table 8. Overall, 21 percent of men and 17 percent of women reported more than 30 miles per week. The only characteristic that is statistically associated with miles per week is educa-

tion. A higher proportion of male runners with 12 or fewer years of education reported running 31 or more miles per week than did those with more than 12 years of education. For female runners, running more than 30 miles per week is more prevalent among those beyond a college level education. In the national sample, the "very active" category was positively associated with education for both men and women.

All health habits. Findings on good health habits (the health habit index) are shown in table 9. Overall, 20 percent of male runners and 25 percent

of female runners reported six or seven good health habits, compared with the national sample findings of 12 percent for men and 11 percent for women.

For male runners, the 31 miles per week group was three times as likely as the group who ran 10 or fewer miles per week to report six or seven good habits (33 percent for the high and 11 percent for the low). This finding is not unusual considering that days per week of exercise was used as one of the good health habits, and this variable is strongly associated with running mileage. However, there were no statistically significant associations of any other characteristic with good health habits. The percentage reporting four or five good habits was similar for the runners and the national sample—59 percent of the male runners and 56 percent of the female runners compared with 51 percent of the men and 56 percent of the women in the national sample.

Summary

In spite of the select nature of this study population and its small numbers, the distribution of several health habits is surprisingly similar to that of the sample of U.S. adults, although direct comparisons cannot be made. For example, as in the national sample, both breakfast and snacking habits were positively associated with age for male runners. Alcohol consumption also varied among subgroups of runners (similar to the national sample), for education, income, and age. As in the national sample, smoking habits are negatively associated with education. Unlike the national sample, snacking behavior among male runners varied with income. Physical activity and education are positively associated in female runners (as in the national sample), but negatively associated in male runners. Despite their increased physical activity, subgroups of the runners, that is, low-income and little education groups, do not score uniformly high on other health habits. Although the runners report a higher number of health habits overall, part of this is due to their high level of physical activity. Comparison of those with four or five health habits indicates about the same proportions in the runners as in the national sample.

Among the runners, high mileage male runners are more likely than low mileage male runners to sleep more than 8 hours a day, maintain ideal weight, have five or more drinks on days when they drink, run 5 or more days per week, and have six to seven good health habits. High mileage female runners are more likely than low mileage

female runners to run 5 or more days per week. For specific habits, high mileage runners do not score consistently better than low mileage runners, but when the health habit index is created, high mileage runners score better than low mileage runners. The advantage seems to be primarily in maintaining ideal weight and high levels of physical activity. Although these runners are generally healthy, only about half of them practice five or more good health habits, indicating that there is substantial room for improvement in this area. However, as in the Schoenborn report (3), these results represent a preliminary summary that must be interpreted with caution, since the data are not age-adjusted and many of the observed relationships may reflect differences in the underlying age distribution of the groups.

How well do these habits relate to morbidity? This issue will be subsequently examined in these runners, using 12 months of followup morbidity data. Further analyses will include adjustment for age and other possible confounders.

References.....

- Belloc, N. B., and Breslow, L.: Relationship of physical health status and health practices. Prev Med 1: 409-421 (1972).
- Breslow, L., and Enstrom, J. E.: Persistence of health habits and their relationship to mortality. Prev Med 9: 469-483 (1980).
- Schoenborn, C. A.: Health habits of U.S. adults, 1985:
 The "Alameda 7" revisited. Public Health Rep 101:
 571-580, November-December 1986.
- Enstrom, J. E., Kanim, L. E., and Breslow, L.: the relationship between vitamin C intake, general health practices, and mortality in Alameda County, California. Am J Public Health 76: 1124-1130 (1986).
- Berkman, L. F., and Breslow, L.: Health and ways of living: the Alameda County study. Oxford University Press, New York, 1983.
- Wingard, D. L., Berkman, L. F., and Brand, R. J.: A multivariate analysis of health and related practices: a nine-year mortality follow-up of the Alameda County study. Am J Epidemiol 116: 765-775 (1982).
- Metropolitan Life Insurance Company: Overweight, its prevention and significance. Stat Bull Metropol Life Ins Co, New York, 1960.